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Nostalgia: A Review, Propositions, and Future Research Agenda

Ekta Srivastava[a], Bharadhwaj Sivakumaran[b], Satish S. Maheswarappa[c] and Justin Paul[d]

[a]Indian Institute of Management–Kozhikode, Kozhikode, Kerala, India; [b]SRM University, Amaravati, Andhra Pradesh, India; [c]Indian Institute of Management–Tiruchirappalli, Tiruchirappalli, Tamil Nadu, India; [d]University of Puerto Rico, San Juan, Puerto Rico, USA

ABSTRACT

This article presents a systematic review of the nostalgia literature (205 articles) using PRISMA protocols. It dwells on three questions: What do we know about nostalgia? What do we need to know about nostalgia? and Where should we be heading? The article examines the evolution of nostalgia, analyzes the definitions of nostalgia (past–memory–yearning–ambivalent emotion), and extends the nostalgia typology of Havlena and Holak (1996). The article also delineates the nostalgic advertising literature; identifies antecedents, moderators, and consequences of nostalgic advertising; and highlights research gaps. Finally, this work offers propositions on nostalgic ad appeals (those that emphasize the attractiveness of and yearning for the past in a bittersweet way) based on four themes: self-restoration, continuity, social relationships, and culture. Specifically, the propositions offer new moderators, such as ads' emotional flow, gender identity, purchase and consumption situation, perceived interactivity, and culture type, that could make some types of nostalgic appeals more effective than others. Our work contributes by being more comprehensive and broad based, extending the typology framework and delineating propositions that lay out a research roadmap for nostalgic advertising.

Nostalgia is a powerful emotion that triggers memories and its use in marketing is widespread. Marketers use ads with nostalgic appeals in developed economies such as the United States (e.g., Pepsi's "Celebrating Every Generation" campaign [Pepsi 2018[) and the United Kingdom (e.g., Fisher Price's "Let's Be Kids" [Fisher-Price 2019]), and emerging ones like India (e.g., Google's "The Hero—A Bollywood Story" ad, [Google India 2016]). In recent times, the COVD-19 pandemic has struck humanity hard. Lockdowns elicited boredom and loneliness, so people became nostalgic for the past (Gibbs and Egermann 2021). Post lockdown, mentions of keywords related to nostalgia or recollection of the past soared from 13 million mentions to 24.4 million (ET BrandEquity 2020). Because nostalgia counteracts adversities and restores balance in stressful times (Davis 1979), the pandemic is possibly making people seek comfort in the past through nostalgia. Thus, nostalgia is more important than ever, and studying it now is critical.

Despite its long history (e.g., Belk 1990), there are few review articles on nostalgia (the bittersweet yearning for the past) in the literature. While they advanced knowledge in the domain (e.g., Gineikienė 2013; Holbrook and Schindler 1991; Ismail et al. 2020), these articles left gaps that could be leveraged. Some of them focus solely on a single domain. For example, McCann (1941) focuses on nostalgia and psychiatry, Holbrook and Schindler (1991) on nostalgia and musical taste, Ismail et al. (2020) on nostalgia and therapeutic potential, and Christou (2020) on nostalgia and tourism. Others predominantly revolve around the construct's evolution (Batcho 2013), conceptual issues (Sedikides et al. 2008), and measurement issues (Gineikienė 2013). Unlike the above articles, ours is more extensive ($N = 205$) and reflects more recent work. We consolidate and synthesize the literature on nostalgia in psychology, sociology, marketing, and advertising. We adopt an expansive view of nostalgia's antecedents, consequences, and

CONTACT Ekta Srivastava ekta.srivastava@iiml.org Indian Institute of Management–Kozhikode, IIM Kozhikode Campus Post, Kozhikode, 673570 Kerala, India

Ekta Srivastava (PhD, Indian Institute of Management–Lucknow) is an Assistant Professor of Marketing, Indian Institute of Management Kozhikode.

Bharadhwaj Sivakumaran (PhD, University of Maryland–College Park) is Dean, School of Entrepreneurship and Management Studies, SRM University.

Satish S. Maheswarappa (PhD, Indian Institute of Technology–Madras) is an Associate Professor of Marketing, Indian Institute of Management Tiruchirappalli

Justin Paul (PhD, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay) is a Professor, Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Puerto Rico.

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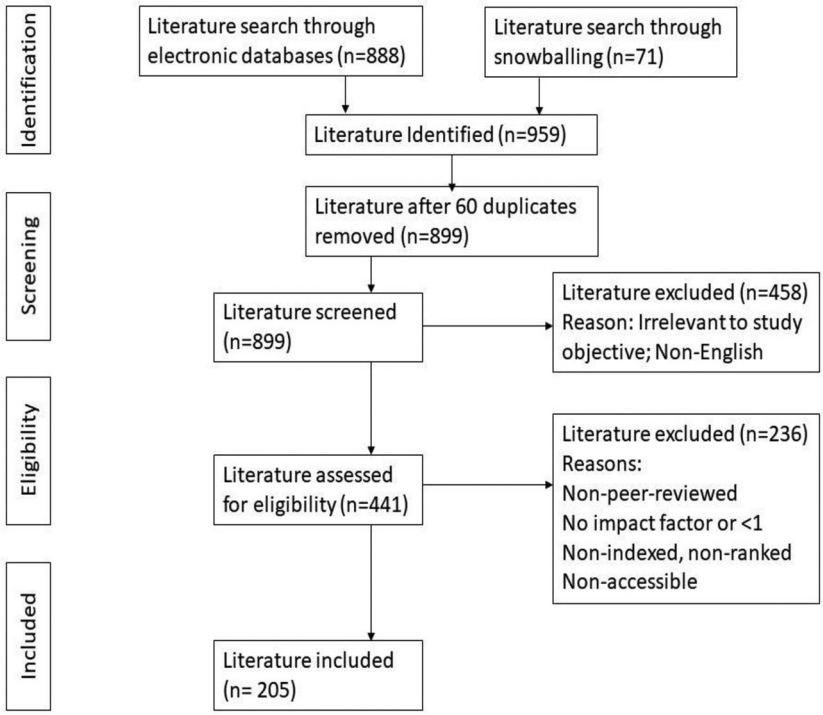


Figure 1. Flow diagram—PRISMA.

moderators and classify them into an organizing framework. The framework includes social antecedents (e.g., loneliness), internal antecedents (e.g., nostalgia proneness), and external antecedents (e.g., sensory stimuli), which result in social consequences (e.g., consumer-brand relationship), internal consequences (e.g., attitude toward ad), and behavioral consequences (e.g., purchase intention; see, e.g., Merchant and Rose 2013; Merchant et al. 2013). These relationships are moderated by variables such as past brand attachment, the importance of the memory evoked, and purchase involvement (e.g., Ford and Merchant 2010; Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan 2014).

We identify gaps in the literature and develop theoretically grounded propositions based on themes identified through these gaps. For instance, we propose new moderators such as emotional flow in the advertisement, gender identity, and possible interaction between consumption context (public/private), purchase motivation (hedonic/utilitarian), perceived interactivity, and types of culture. Moreover, empirical studies on nostalgia in advertising have compared only a few nostalgic appeals, such as personal versus historical (e.g., Muehling 2013) and personal versus cultural (e.g., Gilal et al. 2020). Therefore, we compare other types of nostalgic appeals such as past-oriented versus present-oriented and future-oriented, personal versus collective, and direct versus indirect on the above set of moderators. In line with Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran (2017), we define nostalgic appeals as "those that emphasize the attractiveness and yearning of past events, objects or people, in a predominantly positive way" (Srivastava et al. 2017, 49). Further, we also posit that nostalgia operates in multiple dimensions. We propose two additional dimensions—*time* and *deliberation*—to classify other typologies of nostalgia such as past oriented, present oriented, and future oriented. Thus, we extend the 2×2 matrix proposed by Havlena and Holak (1996) and Holak, Havlena, and Matveev (2005). This article is also more versatile in its applicability; it can be applied to advertising in particular and consumer behavior in general.

To summarize, our work differs from prior reviews in that our work is much more comprehensive, has a broader focus, and offers clear and compelling future research directions. Thus, we provide a wide range of perspectives and look at the nomological network of nostalgia. None of the review articles mentioned above offered a concrete roadmap with propositions for nostalgia. Further, offering propositions enables other researchers to test them empirically and stimulates research in that domain (e.g., Paul and Mas 2019).

Given the identified gaps and following prior reviews (e.g., Paul and Rosado-Serrano 2019), this article has the following research objectives:

1. To understand the course of progression of the conceptualization and operationalization of nostalgia ("what do we know about nostalgia?").

Table 1. Summary of literature reviewed, *N* (%).

Time period	Empirical articles	Conceptual articles	Review articles	Chapters	Books	Total
1930–1990	0	6	1	0	2	9 (4.4)
1991–2013	72	18	4	1	3	98 (47.8)
2014–present	82	11	2	2	1	98 (47.8)
Total	154 (73.7)	35 (17.1)	7 (3.4)	3 (1.5)	6 (2.9)	205

2. To understand the status of the nostalgia literature; present it through an organizing framework depicting antecedents, consequences, and moderators; and identify gaps in the literature ("what do we need to know about nostalgia?").
3. To identify research opportunities for nostalgia in advertising by developing testable propositions ("where should we be heading?").

The rest of the article is organized as follows: we outline the method used to cull articles. Then we describe the findings from the nostalgic advertising literature. Subsequently, we dwell on the definition and typology of nostalgia. Finally, we identify gaps and develop testable propositions that lay out a research agenda in nostalgic advertising.

Method

Our literature review method is consistent with prior research (Ismail et al. 2020; Paul and Rosado-Serrano 2019). We followed the PRISMA (preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses) protocols' (Liberati et al. 2009) 27-item checklist and a four-phase flow diagram while developing this systematic review article (see Figure 1). The four phases include identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion, as follows.

Identification

We applied two literature search techniques, a search of electronic databases and snowballing, to ensure that all relevant studies were taken into account (Nguyen, de Leeuw, and Dullaert 2018). First, we conducted an informal search (Manafo et al. 2018) on Google Scholar through the keyword "nostalgia" to gauge the depth and width of the literature on nostalgia. We went through the titles, publications, associated keywords, and concepts in the domain of nostalgia and thus tried to get an overview of nostalgia literature. In the process, we referred to a well-cited book by Davis (1979) titled *Yearning for Yesterday: A Sociology of Nostalgia*. This seminal work on nostalgia helped us develop a foundation on nostalgia and identify suitable keywords (nostalgia, heritage, bittersweet, reminiscence, attitude toward the past, longing, fond memories, autobiographical memory) that could be applied in a formal online database search. Consistent with other review articles (e.g., Lim, Yap, and Makkar 2021), the authors began their formal search of articles published in scholarly (peer-reviewed) journals on Google Scholar using the keywords above and retrieved them from relevant e-databases. We initially limited our search to publications from 1980 onward, a year after Davis (1979).

Next, this research used the snowball technique to identify additional articles (e.g., Nguyen, de Leeuw, and Dullaert 2018). For backward snowballing, we scanned the reference lists of all the articles retrieved in the first step for the keywords above. For forward snowballing, we used the Google Scholar "cited by" feature to identify studies that cited the retrieved article. The snowball method resulted in 41 additional articles, with some published before 1979. Thus, our final data set included literature for the period 1934–2021 and yielded 929 articles.

Screening

One author scanned the titles, removed 60 duplicate articles, and confirmed that the articles fell within the scope of our study. We excluded those not directly relevant to our study objectives.

Eligibility

To ensure the quality of selected articles, we included articles from peer-reviewed journals that are either ABS/ABDC ranked or indexed in the Web of Science with impact factors > 1. Only articles from journals with an annual impact factor of at least 1.0 were included (e.g., Paul and Rosado-Serrano 2019). Our final data set comprised 205 pieces from 73 peer-reviewed journals.

Inclusion

The literature was organized under empirical articles (e.g., Hinsch, Felix, and Rauschnabel 2020), conceptual articles (e.g., Rana et al. 2020), and review articles (e.g., Christou 2020). Although the literature is diverse, a significant portion of the nostalgia literature is empirical (qualitative and quantitative). Out of 205

Table 2. Antecedents of nostalgia.

Types	Variables	Direction	References
Social Factors	Group-based exclusion	Negative	e.g., Merchant et al. 2015; Youn 2020; Merchant and Rose 2013; Merchant et al. 2016
	Social exclusion	Negative	
	Loneliness	Negative	
	Alienation	Negative	
	Boredom	Positive	
	Need to belong	Positive	
	Heritage	Positive	
	National heritage identity (NHI)	Positive	
Internal Factors	Negative mood	Negative	e.g., Youn 2020; Merchant and Rose 2013; Merchant et al. 2013; Merchant et al. 2016; Singh, Sharma, and Kumar 2021
	Threat to intrinsic self	Negative	
	Threat to authenticity	Negative	
	Meaninglessness	Negative	
	Yearning for past	Positive	
	Fantasy proneness	Positive	
	Nostalgia proneness	Positive	
	Spiritual well-being	Positive	
External Factors	Adverse weather	Negative	e.g., van Tilburg, Sedikides, and Wildschut 2018; Reid et al. 2015
	Cold weather	Negative	
	Thermoregulatory discomfort	Negative	
	Sensory stimuli	Positive	

articles, 85 are related to psychology and sociology disciplines, and the remaining 120 are connected to marketing and consumer studies. Further, 35 out of 120 articles pertain specifically to advertising. The literature was organized into three time frames: 1930–1990, 1991–2013, and 2014–2021. The time frames were chosen based on the focus and extent of research in the nostalgia domain (see Table 1 for the summary of the literature reviewed). Consistent with Cassell, Denyer, and Tranfield (2006), this work adopts a qualitative approach to synthesize and integrate research findings from the review.

We adopt an interrogative approach (Lim 2020) with questions whose answers will enrich our understanding of nostalgia. We address three questions in the remaining article: What do we know about nostalgia? What do we need to know about nostalgia? and Where should we be heading?

What Do We Know about Nostalgia?

This section discusses the evolution and course of progression of the conceptualization and operationalization of nostalgia, analyzes the definition and typologies of nostalgia, and presents an organizing framework of nostalgia literature.

Progression of Nostalgia

Initially, nostalgia was studied in medical science and psychiatry. Hofer coined the term nostalgia in 1688 to describe a condition of extreme "homesickness" among Swiss soldiers fighting in faraway wars (Hofer 1688 [1934]). He regarded homesickness as a medical construct and explained that nostalgia combines two Greek words: *nostos*, meaning return home, and *algos*, meaning pain, a painful yearning to return home (Davis 1979). Subsequently, researchers in psychology and sociology (e.g. Hall 1904) studied nostalgia. Possibly because consumer behavior is rooted in psychology, research in marketing and advertising studied nostalgia and continues to do so. We describe this research in detail below.

Nostalgia in Marketing and Advertising: Holbrook and Schindler (1991) were the first to define nostalgia in the marketing context, as "A preference (general liking, positive attitude, or favorable affect) toward experiences associated with objects (people, places, or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable, or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood, or even before birth)." Stern (1992) introduced and analyzed two types of nostalgia in the advertising context—personal and historical nostalgia—and offered avenues for future exploration. Holbrook and Schindler (1991) and Stern (1992) gave an impetus to further research on nostalgia in marketing and advertising. Researchers thus studied nostalgia to understand aspects of consumer behavior like attitudes, purchase intention, brand loyalty, word-of-mouth behavior, and esthetic and green consumption (e.g., Goulding 2002; Lasaleta, Sedikides, and Vohs 2014; Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan 2014; Wang and Chao 2019). The literature on nostalgia in advertising deals with the following: antecedents, outcomes or consequences, an explanation of the mechanisms through which these outcomes occur, moderators, and types of nostalgic appeals. We described these below briefly.

Table 3. Consequences of nostalgia.

Types	Variables	Direction	References
Social	Social connectedness	Positive	e.g., Ford and Merchant 2010; Merchant et al. 2013; Wang, Keh, and Chao 2018; Koetz and Tankersley 2016
	Perceived competence to provide emotional support	Positive	
	Perceived social/family support	Positive	
	Repatriation	Positive	
	In-group over outgroup feeling	Negative	
	Domestic country bias	Positive	
	Empathy	Positive	
	Prejudice	Negative	
	Resistance	Positive	
	Cultural Identity	Positive	
	Online brand community ties	Positive	
Internal	Self-knowledge	Positive	e.g., Sedikides et al. 2016; van Tilburg et al., 2019; Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan 2014; Chang and Feng 2016; Merchant and Rose 2013; Zhao, Muehling, and Kareklas 2014; Gilal et al. 2020; Jain et al. 2019; Ford and Merchant 2010; Stern 1992; Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran 2019; Kessous, Roux, and Chandon 2015; Merchant et al. 2013; Youn 2020
	Self-continuity	Positive	
	Self-esteem	Positive	
	Self-enhancement	Positive	
	Intrinsic motivation	Positive	
	Inspiration and goal pursuit	Positive	
	Meaningfulness	Positive	
	Life satisfaction	Positive	
	Optimism	Positive	
	Authenticity	Positive	
	Psychological well being	Positive	
	Materialism	Negative	
	Mood boosts	Positive	
	Emotional reaction	Positive	
	Physiological comfort	Positive	
	Attitude toward ad, product, brand	Positive	
	Preference for retro-styled objects	Positive	
	Preference for indulgent food	Positive	
	Product judgment in Historically connected markets (HCM)	Positive	
	Advertising involvement	Positive	
	Brand resurrection movement (BRM)	Positive	
	(Re)enchantment	Positive	
	Brand love	Positive	
	Consumer patience	Positive	
	Perception of brand heritage	Positive	
	Brand self-image fit	Positive	
	Perceived risk	Negative	
	Consumer-brand relationship	Positive	
	Self-brand connection	Positive	
	Brand attachment	Positive	
	Brand bonds	Positive	
Behavioral	Leisure participation	Positive	e.g., Cho 2020; Leong et al. 2015; Triantafillidou and Siomkos 2014; Lasaleta, Sedikides, and Vohs 2014; Youn 2020; Goulding 2002; Wang and Chao 2019; Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan 2014; Ford and Merchant 2010
	Prosocial behavior	Positive	
	Charitable/donation intention	Positive	
	Heritage experience	Positive	
	Heritage visiting	Positive	
	Pro-environmental behavior	Positive	
	Purchase intention	Positive	
	Willingness to pay more	Positive	
	Product ownership in historically connected markets (HCM)	Positive	
	Esthetic consumption	Positive	
	Creativity	Positive	
	Green consumption	Negative	
	Consumer switching behavior	Positive	
	Tourism loyalty	Positive	
	Revisit intention	Positive	
	Sensation-seeking/variety-seeking/risk-taking/curiosity-motivated behavior	Positive	
	Word-of-mouth behavior and intention	Positive	
	Brand engagement behavior on Facebook	Positive	

Past studies have identified antecedents (e.g., negative mood, loneliness, a threat to intrinsic self) of nostalgia. We categorize the antecedents of nostalgia into three: social, external, and internal factors (see Table 2). Social factors that can evoke nostalgia are loneliness (Merchant et al. 2013), alienation, and social exclusion (Merchant and Rose 2013). Internal factors are psychological factors such as negative mood (Wildschut et al. 2006), nostalgia proneness (Youn 2020), a threat to intrinsic self (Lasaleta and Loveland 2019), and spiritual well-being (Singh, Sharma, and Kumar 2021). External factors that evoke nostalgia are physical factors such as adverse weather (van Tilburg, Sedikides, and Wildschut 2018) or sensory stimuli (Reid et al. 2015) experienced in the environment. Internal and social factors align with the existential and restorative functions served by nostalgia, respectively (Wildschut et al. 2006).

Extant literature that investigated positive outcomes (e.g., positive attitudes, willingness to pay a premium) of nostalgic advertising can be grouped into social, internal, and behavioral categories (see Table 3). Social consequences include perceived social support (Merchant et al. 2013). Internal consequences include a positive attitude toward the ad and the advertised brand, ad involvement (Chang and Feng 2016; Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan 2014), brand bonds (Merchant et al. 2013), perception of brand heritage, brand attachment (Merchant and Rose 2013), and brand self-image fit (Zhao, Muehling, and Kareklas 2014). Behavioral consequences include purchase intention (Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan 2014), willingness to pay a premium (Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran 2019), donation/charitable intention (Ford and Merchant 2010), and brand engagement behavior on Facebook (Youn 2020).

Research has explained positive outcomes (e.g., positive attitudes, willingness to pay a premium) of nostalgic advertising through both cognitive and affective responses to nostalgia (e.g., Muehling and Pascal 2011). Cognitive responses include ad-evoked nostalgia-related thoughts (Merchant et al. 2016; Youn 2020; Zhao, Muehling, and Kareklas 2014), self-reflection (e.g., Muehling and Pascal 2012), fantasies about the past era (e.g., Merchant and Rose 2013), cognitive processing style (e.g., Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran 2019), and diachronic relevance (e.g., Ju et al. 2016). Cognitive responses are followed by affective responses such as ad-evoked emotions or nostalgic intensity (Merchant and Rose 2013; Zhao, Muehling, and Kareklas 2014).

Research has identified several moderators that would influence the outcome of nostalgic advertising. We have grouped them into four categories: demographics, individual differences, purchase situation-related, and ad execution-related variables (see Table 4). Demographic variables include gender (Singh, Sharma, and Kumar 2021) and age (Ju et al. 2016), and individual difference variables include consumers' self-construal (Jain et al. 2019), nostalgia proneness (Ford and Merchant 2010), future time perspective (FTP) (Ju, Bluck, and Liao 2018), life satisfaction (Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins 2019), and tolerance to ambiguity (Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras 2020). Purchase situation–related variables include product's consumption context, that is, public versus private (Chang and Feng 2016), purchase motivation (hedonic vs. utilitarian) and past brand attachment (Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras 2020), product involvement (Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins 2019), self-referencing (Merchant and Rose 2013), social influence (Youn and Jin 2017), and consumer affective state (Zhao, Muehling, and Kareklas 2014). Last, ad execution-related variables include language style (Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras 2020), music in an ad (Marchegiani and Phau 2012), song familiarity, and lyrics relevance (Chou and Lien 2014).

We found 35 articles directly dealing with nostalgic advertising. These articles dealt with kinds of products—hedonic (Leunissen et al. 2021) or utilitarian (Lasaleta, Werle, and Yamim 2021); kinds of nostalgic appeals—personal (Muehling 2013), historical (Muehling 2013) and vicarious (Merchant and Rose 2013), and the medium of conveying the nostalgic appeal—print (Gilal et al. 2020), TV (Merchant et al. 2016), digital (Jain et al. 2019) and music (Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins 2019). Please see Table 5 for details. Researchers in this space may study these articles to learn about the various products used, the kinds of nostalgic appeals and mediums used, and the way they were manipulated and executed.

We delineate the key takeaways from the nostalgic-advertising literature below. Nostalgic advertising works in that it engenders positive attitudes and enhances purchase intentions (e.g., Chou and Lien 2014; Ford and Merchant 2010; Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran 2019). Research in this stream has focused on scale development (e.g., Jain et al. 2019; Merchant et al. 2013, 2016). Another line of research compares different kinds of nostalgia. Personal (historical) nostalgic ads work better for private (public) consumption contexts (Chang and Feng

Table 4. Moderators in nostalgia research.

Types	Variables	References
Demographics	Age Gender	e.g., Goulding 2002; Gilal et al. 2020; Stern 1992; Singh, Sharma, and Kumar 2021
Individual differences	Nostalgia proneness Innovativeness Personality Tolerance to ambiguity Habitual worrying Self-concept Identity continuity Self-construal (independent/interdependent) Mortality salience Life satisfaction Self-referencing Future time perspective (FTP) Attitude toward past/past orientation	e.g., Ford and Merchant 2010; Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras 2020; Ju, Bluck, and Liao 2018; Merchant and Rose 2013; Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins 2019; Chang and Feng 2016
Purchase situation–related	Product's consumption context (public/private) Product type (emotionally meaningful/ knowledge-related) Purchase motivation (hedonic/utilitarian) Past brand attachment Social Influence Companion (food) Product involvement Importance of the memory evoked Valence of past experience Mood/affective state	e.g., Ju, Bluck, and Liao 2018; Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras 2020; Chang and Feng 2016; Youn and Jin 2017; Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins 2019; Ford and Merchant 2010; Zhao, Muehling, and Kareklas 2014
Ad execution–related	Language style (pledges, hedges, and no probability markers Music in ad Song familiarity Lyrics relevance Singer gender	e.g., Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras 2020; Marchegiani and Phau 2012; Chou and Lien 2014

2016). Historical nostalgic appeals worked better in brand resurrection movements compared to personal and cultural nostalgic appeals. Historical nostalgic appeals worked even better for women, vis-à-vis men. Personal and historical nostalgic (cultural and non-nostalgic) ads enhanced engagement for older (younger) consumers (Gilal et al. 2020).

Another line of inquiry attempted to answer the question, When does nostalgic advertising work better? Nostalgic appeals worked better for people in their "bump years" (years of a person's life that are especially recalled; Ju et al. 2016). Nostalgia enhanced brand attitudes, especially when future time available is limited (Ju, Bluck, and Liao 2018). For consumers with low life satisfaction, nostalgic ads created more positive attitudes and enhanced purchase intentions for low-involvement products, but not for high-involvement ones (Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins 2019). Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras (2020) found the same effect, except that the positive impact of nostalgic appeals was accentuated when consumers had high, rather than a low brand attachment. Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan (2014) showed that the positive affect of nostalgic appeals was enhanced when consumers had experience with the brand. Singh, Sharma, and Kumar (2021) found that nostalgic appeals worked better for consumers with high spiritual well-being (vs. those with low spiritual well-being). Nostalgic appeals worked better when consumers were already in a positive, rather than a negative, affective state (Zhao, Muehling, and Kareklas 2014). Nostalgic appeals worked better for established brands and when there was a congruence between a brand extension and gender, that is, when the brand was extended to target the same gender (Chang and Tung 2016). Nostalgic ads made people feel younger, and this effect was greater for older, rather than younger, consumers (Kim and Yim 2018). Kusumi, Matsuda, and Sugimori (2010) showed that for men, with age, nostalgic appeals created more nostalgic feelings, but for women over 50 years old, this was not the case.

Finally, one line of research dealt with comparing various kinds of nostalgic appeals. Generally, extant work shows that personal nostalgic appeals are more effective compared to historical ones (Muehling 2013; Muehling and Pascal 2011, 2012). However, historical nostalgic appeals were more effective in brand resurrection movements (Gilal et al. 2020), especially for women, compared to personal nostalgic appeals.

Table 5. Overview of nostalgia in advertising.

Item description	Details (%)	Exemplar paper(s)
Type of product used	Hedonic (34%) Utilitarian (12%) Both (18%) None (37%)	Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins (2019); Muehling, Sprott, and Sultan (2014); Merchant and Rose (2013); Gilal et al. (2020)
Nostalgic appeal type	General nostalgia (54%) Personal and historical nostalgia (20%) Vicarious nostalgia (3%) Personal nostalgia (3%) None (20%)	Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran (2019); Muehling and Pascal (2012); Merchant and Rose (2013); Merchant et al. (2013); Kusumi, Matsuda, and Sugimori (2010)
Type of Brand	Real (37%) Fictitious (34%) None (31%)	Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran (2019); Muehling (2013); Kusumi, Matsuda, and Sugimori (2010)
Medium	Print (51%) TV/digital (11%) Print and TV/digital (6%) Music (6%) None (26%)	Gilal et al. (2020); Merchant et al. (2016); Jain et al. (2019); Khoshghadam, Kordrostami, and Liu-Thompkins (2019); Rich (2016)

Likewise, historical nostalgic appeals worked better in public consumption contexts for consumers with interdependent self-construals as opposed to independent self-construals (Chang and Feng 2016). Having described the findings from the literature, we next provide an organizing framework of nostalgia.

Organizing Framework

This article consolidates and classifies the extant literature on nostalgia (in general) and nostalgic advertising (in particular) and offers an organizing framework (see Figure 2) depicting antecedents, consequences, and moderators of nostalgia.

The extant literature shows that empirical research around nostalgia has focused on its meaning (e.g., Wilson 2015), antecedents (e.g., Merchant and Rose 2013), consequences (e.g., Ford and Merchant 2010), moderators (e.g., Langaro, Loureiro, and Contreiras 2020), and measurement issues (e.g., Ford et al. 2018). The review also uncovered that the most common theories used in nostalgia studies are social-identity theory or social-connectedness or identity theory (e.g., Lasaleta, Sedikides, and Vohs 2014), attachment theory (e.g., Kessous, Roux, and Chandon 2015), and terror-management theory (e.g., Wang and Chao 2019). According to social-identity theory, in the pursuit of enhancing self-identity, individuals adopt products and brands associated with their group (Tajfel and Turner 1986). According to attachment theory, social connectedness and interpersonal relationships help cope with stress (Bowlby 1982). Nostalgia reduces loneliness by fostering social connectedness and attachment to brands or experiences from the past. Terror-management theory (Greenberg, Pyszczynski, and Solomon 1986) provides a defense mechanism for people to protect against mortality salience by seeking enduring meaning in life. Extant literature suggests that nostalgia raises self-worth, self-esteem, and social connectedness (Cheung, Sedikides, and Wildschut 2016), thereby acting as a defense mechanism against mortality salience.

We present the progression of nostalgia through the timeline approach (see Figure 3).

Definition of Nostalgia

We reviewed past definitions and qualitatively analyzed them through word frequency in NVivo (Reeve et al. 2015) and thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke 2006). The data set consisted of definitions of nostalgia from the year 1934 to 2021. The data set was entered into NVivo (version 12) to analyze word frequencies.

Since we aimed to find a patterned meaning or key themes from definitions, thematic analysis was appropriate (Braun and Clarke 2006). First, we immersed ourselves into the data set through repeated active reading and searched for meanings, patterns, and ideas for coding with the help of a word cloud generated through NVivo. Second, initial codes (approximately 40 in number) that focused on the semantic content of data were manually generated, such as past, memory, and longing. Last, we analyzed codes to develop themes and refined and merged codes to develop a thematic map (see Figure 4). The themes facilitate the conceptualization and operationalization of the construct of nostalgia. Nostalgia can be conceptualized through four major concepts—past (idealized and viewed through rose-tinted glasses), memory (recalling past associations and reflecting upon them), longing/yearning (to go back to the past), and

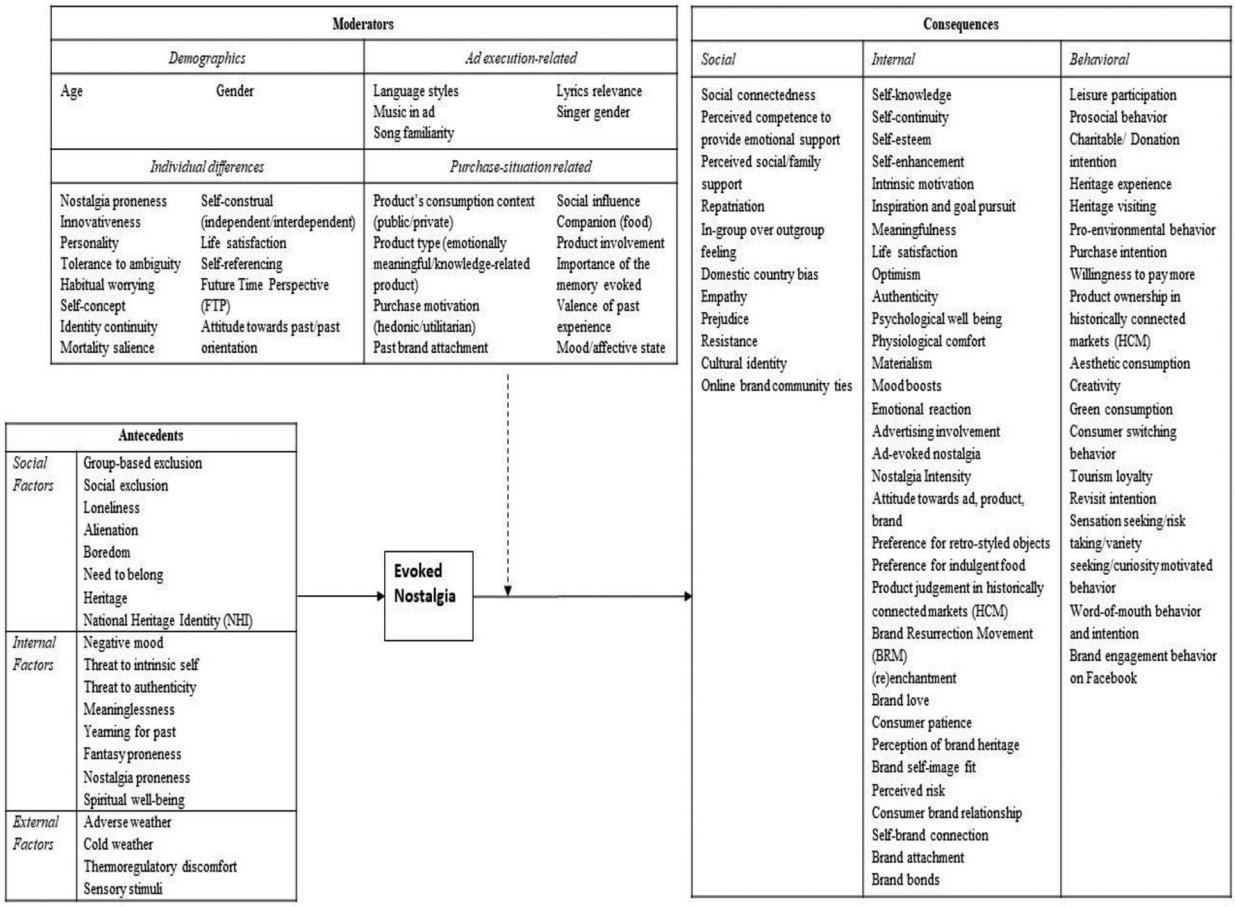


Figure 2. Organizing framework.

emotion (ambivalent but predominantly positive). Ambivalence comes from the coexistence of positive affect (memories of an idealized past) and negative affect (the idealized past is no more).

The thematic analysis also helped us better define nostalgia. Based on the thematic analysis, we define *nostalgia* as a yearning to recapture the positive emotional state of an idealized past through fond memories that are characterized by their ambivalent nature, though predominantly positive (see Figure 4). The next section provides typologies of nostalgia.

Typologies of Nostalgia

A nostalgic stimulus can evoke different types of nostalgia, based on its symbolic and imagery content (Stern 1992). As suggested in past research (Baker and Kennedy 1994), we delineate the various types of nostalgia using the example of 40-year-old John. Nostalgia evoked by recalling personally or directly experienced past events is called "true/real/personal/direct nostalgia" (Stern 1992). For example, John experiences personal nostalgia when he looks at an old photograph of his daughter and remembers her childhood. If nostalgia is based on shared memories across people in a group, it is referred to as "collective nostalgia" (Baker and Kennedy 1994). For instance, John experiences collective nostalgia for the old-style telephone with a rotary dial. Suppose nostalgia is evoked by events in the distant past or before birth that are not experienced directly but represented through people, books, or media. In that case, it is referred to as "simulated/historical/vicarious/indirect nostalgia" (Stern 1992). If John experiences a desire to go back to the 1770s (to be a part of America's freedom movement), it is historical nostalgia.

Davis (1979) proposed a personal versus public dimension to distinguish between private/individual/personal nostalgia and public/collective/cultural nostalgia. Further, Havlena and Holak (1996) proposed two dimensions, individual versus collective and direct versus indirect, to suggest four classes of nostalgia—personal nostalgia, interpersonal nostalgia, cultural nostalgia, and virtual nostalgia (Holak, Havlena, and Matveev 2005). We classified the typologies discussed above based on the two dimensions of Havlena and Holak (1996; see Figure 5). The upper left quadrant (direct individual) includes nostalgia associated with memories at an individual level that is directly experienced (e.g., personal/

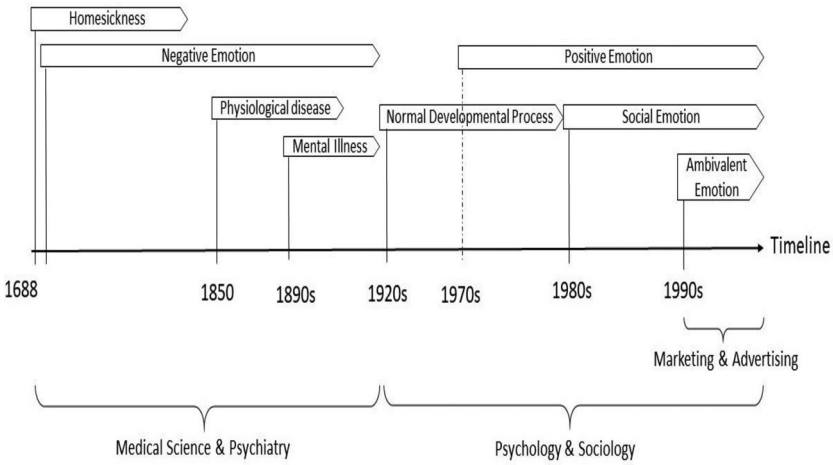


Figure 3. Timeline approach.

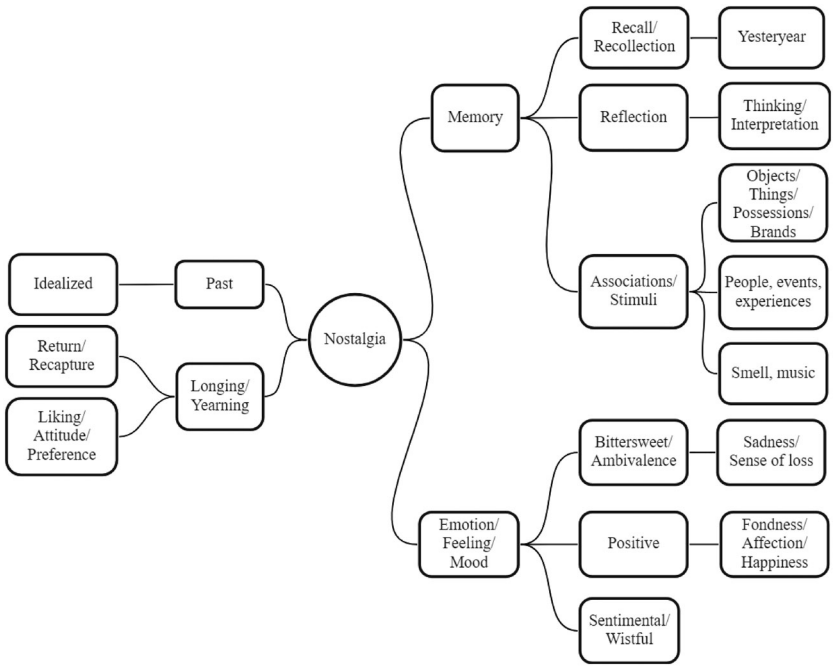


Figure 4. Thematic map.

private/individual nostalgia). The upper right quadrant (direct collective) includes types of nostalgia related to collective or group-level memories that are directly experienced (e.g., cultural nostalgia). The lower left quadrant (indirect individual) contains types of nostalgia related to memories at an individual level that are indirectly experienced (e.g., historical, interpersonal, vicarious nostalgia). Last, the lower right quadrant (indirect collective) includes those types of nostalgia that pertain to collective or group-level memories that are indirectly experienced (e.g., virtual, historical, cultural, vicarious nostalgia). The typologies discussed can be put under two dimensions (see Figure 5).

Davis (1979) suggested another typology, that is, simple, reflexive, and interpreted nostalgia. Simple nostalgia is based on uncritical reliance on one's fond memory of the past and the notion that the past was better than the present. Reflexive nostalgia is more critical and questions whether the recalled memory is accurate, complete, and truly representative of the past event. Interpreted nostalgia digs further into why one feels nostalgic, leading to critical self-awareness (Davis 1979). Thus, simple, reflexive, and interpreted nostalgia differ in the deliberation or thinking involved; we call this the *deliberation dimension*. Simple (interpreted) nostalgia involves a minimum (maximum) deliberation.

Another typology distinguishes past-oriented, present-oriented, and future-oriented nostalgia (Wilson 2015). Past-oriented nostalgia is a yearning to return

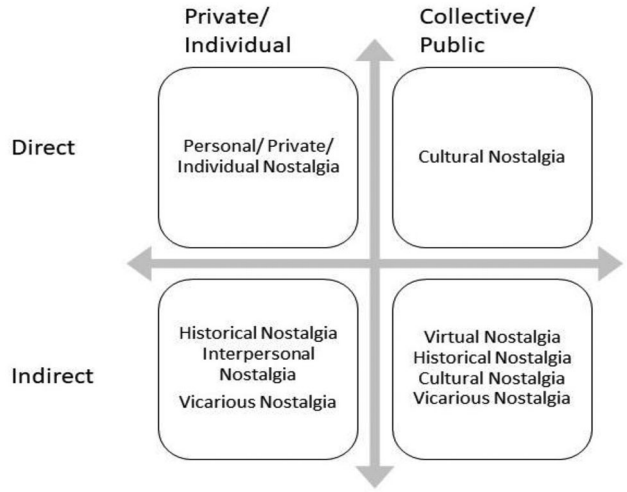


Figure 5. Typologies of nostalgia.

to one's home, childhood, and beginnings (Jacobsen 2020). Past-oriented nostalgia is a conventional backward-looking nostalgia (a natural inclination to return to our roots), while present and future-oriented nostalgia are unconventional forms of nostalgia. Present-oriented nostalgia results from unsuccessful adaptation to present surroundings (Nawas and Platt 1965). Many of the triggers to nostalgia, as identified in past research, are negative, for example, loneliness, social exclusion, boredom, threat to intrinsic self, threat to authenticity, and meaninglessness (Lasaleta and Loveland 2019), and thus indicate that present-oriented nostalgia is relevant and commonly experienced. Because nostalgia leads to positive consequences such as self-enhancement, psychological well-being, optimism, inspiration, and meaningfulness (e.g., Cheung, Sedikides, and Wildschut 2016), nostalgia is future-oriented even though, by definition, it is focused on the past. Future-oriented nostalgia is an individual's response to anticipated change through a symbolic return to comforting aspects of the past (Wilson 2015). Individuals who are very optimistic and see their future as very promising and fulfilling would not generally experience future-oriented nostalgia. Additionally, Batcho and Shikh (2016) introduced anticipatory nostalgia, an emotion experienced through mental time travel where one misses the present before it is gone. For example, John experiences anticipatory nostalgia while thinking of the future when his daughter, who is currently home for vacation, would return to her boarding school. Thus, past-oriented, present-oriented, and future-oriented nostalgia and anticipated nostalgia differ in terms of the driving force, whether it is past (in case of past-oriented nostalgia), present (in case of present-oriented nostalgia), or future (in case of future-oriented and anticipated nostalgia). We call this the *time dimension*.

Based on different typologies of nostalgia, we infer that nostalgia operates in multiple dimensions. We propose two additional dimensions—time and deliberation—to classify other typologies of nostalgia. As discussed earlier, past-oriented, present-oriented, future-oriented nostalgia (Wilson 2015), and anticipatory nostalgia (Batcho and Shikh 2016) can be classified on the time dimension, while simple, reflexive, and interpreted nostalgia (Davis 1979) can be classified on the deliberation dimension.

What Do We Need to Know about Nostalgia?

The following gaps emerge from our review. There is little work connecting nostalgic appeals with interactivity, emotional sequencing, gender identities, cultures, and interactivity/media. Thus, these gaps appear in elements of advertising like ad execution (interactivity and emotional sequencing would be bucketed here), ad receiver characteristics (gender identities), ad contexts (culture), and ad mediums (interactivity/media).

Interactivity enhances time spent on a dedicated advertising location (Cauberghe and De Pelsmacker 2010). Liu and Shrum (2002) argue that while interactivity may have some defects, by and large, it is a "good thing," and it leads to higher control and involvement. Liu et al. (2019) find that interactivity value affects mobile advertising acceptance. Mulcahy and Riedel (2020) find that interactivity leads to higher involvement and renders brand attitudes more positive. Sreejesh et al. (2020) find that interactive ads lead to higher recall, recognition, and attention. Despite the positive effects of interactivity in advertising, research has not studied it in the context of nostalgic appeals.

Baumgartner, Sujan, and Padgett (1997) show that emotional sequencing or "moment to moment" responses to varying emotional sequencing in ads affect overall ad judgment. Elpers, Wedel, and Pieters (2003) show that the positive velocity of emotional value decreases the probability that consumers stop viewing a TV ad. Young (2004) too finds that emotional flow affects judgment toward advertising. Nostalgic appeals have emotions, predominantly positive but with some negative tinges as well (Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran 2019). Hence, emotional flow in nostalgic appeals could affect consumer reactions to ads that feature them. To our knowledge,

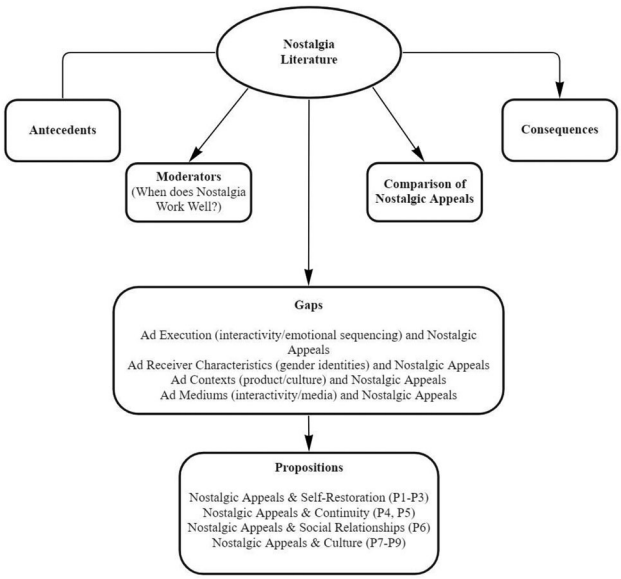


Figure 6. Schematic representation.

there is little research connecting emotional flow and nostalgic appeals.

Likewise, gender identity affects reactions to advertising (Weinberger et al. 2017; Yoon and Kim 2014). There are cultural differences in reactions to advertising (Winterich, Gangwar, and Grewal 2018). Hence, gender identity and culture could play a role in nostalgic appeals as well.

Research has not dealt with consumption context (public/private) and purchase motivation (hedonic/utilitarian) when used in the context of nostalgic appeals. Moreover, empirical studies on nostalgia in advertising have compared only a few nostalgic appeals, such as personal versus historical (Chang and Feng 2016; Muehling 2013) and personal versus cultural (Gilal et al. 2020). Other typologies of nostalgia, such as past-oriented, present-oriented, and future-oriented, have not been given much attention. Hence, we develop a research agenda around these issues.

For example, consider the brand Fortune (in India) for cooking oil, now marketed as a gender-neutral product. Which type of nostalgic appeal should be used for different gender identities? Consider Tata Salt (in India), a shared utilitarian product. On the other hand, Amul ice cream (in India) is a shared hedonic product (consumers may buy a family pack and consume it as a family). What type of nostalgic appeal should these brands use? Brands such as Coca-Cola, Microsoft, and Google are present the world over and use nostalgia to elicit positive associations. Which type of nostalgic appeal should they use in different cultures? Consider the brand Nike. Suppose it wants to use a nostalgic appeal, how should the ad be executed? Should the ad feature an emotional sequence of negative-to-neutral-to-positive or neutral-to-positive? In the past, nostalgic ads such as Fisher Price's "Let's Be Kids" (Fisher-Price 2019), Google's "The Hero—A Bollywood Story" ad (Google India 2016), British Airways #fuelledbylove (British Airways 2016), and Coca-Cola's "The Letter" (Coca-Cola 2020b) have used an emotional sequence of neutral-to-negative-to-positive. On the other hand, Disney's "From Our Family to Yours" (Disney 2020) used an emotional sequence of positive-to-negative-to-very positive. Would the impact be different if the emotional sequence were altered? Additionally, brands (such as Amazon) that have their presence on digital media would derive more benefits from nostalgic appeals if they made the ads interactive.

The extant research in nostalgia does not have concrete answers to the above questions. Hence, we present a roadmap for future research in nostalgia below through propositions that would answer the questions above. Please see Figure 6 for a schematic representation of the discussion so far.

Nostalgic Advertising—Where Should We Be Heading?

This section identifies critical variables based on the review. We develop a research agenda around four themes—nostalgic appeals and self-restoration, nostalgic appeals and continuity, nostalgic appeals and social relationships, and nostalgic appeals and culture, as delineated below (see Table 6). Specifically, we developed propositions around the gaps we identified.

Nostalgic Appeals and Self-Restoration

According to regulatory focus theory (Higgins 1997), two types of goals or foci motivate persuasion; prevention-focus, that is, minimizing adverse outcomes; and promotion-focus, that is, maximizing positive results. They are similar to negative and positive reinforcement, respectively, as explained by Rossiter and Percy (1991) in the context of advertising. Past-oriented nostalgic appeals, as discussed earlier, refer to a natural yearning to return to one's home, childhood, and beginnings (Jacobsen 2020), giving a sense of gratification. Promotion-focus involves maximizing positive results (Higgins 1997). Promotion-focused individuals tend to value aspirations and gains (Kim and Ball 2021). Hence, past-oriented nostalgic appeals would be aligned with promotion focus because past-oriented nostalgic appeals give a sense of gratification, which is positive in nature. Present-oriented nostalgia is a reaction to the unsatisfactory present, and future-oriented nostalgia is

Table 6. Themes and propositions for future research on nostalgia.

Theme	Propositions
Nostalgic appeals and self-restoration	**P1**: Past-oriented (vs. present-oriented/future-oriented) nostalgic appeals would work better when the emotional flow in ads is neutral-to-positive (vs. negative-to-neutral-to-positive). **P2**: Past-oriented (vs. present/future-oriented) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for consumers with masculine (vs. feminine) gender identities. **P3**: Historical (vs. personal) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for consumers with masculine (vs. feminine) gender identities.
Nostalgic appeals and continuity	**P4**: Personal nostalgic appeals would lead to stronger (weaker) behavioral loyalty toward personal hedonic (vs. personal utilitarian) products. **P5**: Collective nostalgic appeals would lead to stronger (weaker) behavioral loyalty toward shared utilitarian (vs. shared hedonic) products.
Nostalgic appeals and social relationships	**P6**: High (vs. low) perceived interactivity in ads would lead to a stronger (vs. weaker) attitude toward the nostalgic ad, nostalgic brand, and purchase considerations.
Nostalgic appeals and culture	**P7:** The effectiveness of indirect (vs. direct) nostalgic appeals is higher for high-context (vs. low-context) cultures. **P8:** Future-oriented (vs. present- and past-oriented) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for long-term- (vs. short-term-) oriented cultures. **P9:** Personal (vs. cultural) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for indulgent (vs. restraint) cultures.

a reaction to anticipated change (Wilson 2015). Prevention-focus individuals like to avoid negative outcomes (Kim and Ball 2021). Both unsatisfactory present and uncertain future (that are a part of present-oriented and future-oriented nostalgia, respectively) are negative in nature. Hence, these kinds of nostalgic appeals would be aligned with a prevention focus. Based on previous arguments, we further posit that prevention focus is positively associated with present-oriented and future-oriented nostalgia.

Nostalgic ads are inherently emotionally dynamic. Emotionally dynamic ads generally contain a drama, a storyline, and a plot where characters' emotions are changing in terms of valence (i.e., positive to negative or vice versa) or intensity (i.e., high to low arousal or vice versa) (Kamp and MacInnis 1995). Thus, nostalgic ads, based on narrative self-referencing (Muehling and Pascal 2011) and ambivalence (Muehling 2013), are also emotionally dynamic. We use Rossiter and Percy's (1991) theory of emotion and motivation in advertising to understand the appropriate sequence of feelings or emotional flow in the nostalgic advertisement. An emotional sequence of negative-to-neutral-to-positive is effective for prevention focus or negative reinforcement. In contrast, a sequence of neutral-to-positive is effective for promotion focus (Rossiter and Percy 1991). Therefore, the emotional flow from negative-to-neutral-to-positive (neutral-to-positive) would work in the present and future-oriented (past-oriented) nostalgia (based on prevention and promotion focus respectively). Hence,

> P1: Past-oriented (vs. present-oriented/future-oriented) nostalgic appeals would work better when the emotional flow in ads is neutral-to-positive (vs. negative-to-neutral-to-positive).

The literature presents mixed views on gender differences in nostalgic experiences (e.g., Baker and Kennedy 1994). While some studies showed that men are more likely to experience nostalgia (e.g., Havlena and Holak 1991), others found the opposite (e.g., Reisenwitz, Iyer, and Cutler 2004). Neale, Robbie, and Martin (2016) posited that studying differences in product preferences based on biological gender is not reasonable. They showed that gender identity/gender self-concept (vs. biological gender) predicts consumer behavior better. Therefore, we propose the moderating role of gender identity. Gender identity is defined as the perception of one's own masculinity or femininity (Palan 2001). Historically, masculine identity has been constantly threatened by feminine identity (Burke 1991). Lack of acceptance for transgender people and fear of insufficient masculinity threaten masculine identity (Brown 2004). Consumers with masculine (vs. feminine) gender identities support traditional gender norms more (Harrison and Michelson 2019). In the postmodern world, the conventional notions of masculinity and femininity have changed (Kacen 2000). Advertising and new products have blurred the traditional boundaries between genders (Brownie 2017). As a result, consumers with masculine identities feel threatened and anxious not only in the present but also with anticipatory changes in the future (Kacen 2000), leading to an identity crisis. Therefore, a perceived threat to masculine identity is more likely as compared to a threat to feminine identity. Based on social-identity theory (Batcho and Shikh 2016), to restore their identities, consumers with masculine identities tend to look back to the past when masculine identity was traditionally strong. In the same pursuit, they would look into

books and media from the distant past and indirectly experience the spirit of traditional masculinity through historical nostalgia. Hence,

P2: Past-oriented (vs. present/future-oriented) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for consumers with masculine (vs. feminine) gender identities.

P3: Historical (vs. personal) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for consumers with masculine (vs. feminine) gender identities.

Nostalgic Appeals and Continuity

Nostalgia plays a vital role in maintaining the continuity of the self through the revival of the past (Jacobsen 2020). Because possessions form an integral aspect of self and identity (Belk 1990), consumers use past consumption behavior to reflect on the present. Based on the self-continuity theory (Sedikides et al. 2016), nostalgia would result in consumer patronage and loyalty. Fan, Jiang, and Hu (2020) showed that collective or group-level nostalgia creates a choice for popular, nondistinctive products and those preferred by the majority in a group. Utilitarian products have "functional, instrumental, and practical benefits" (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2008, 49, and, thus, can be easily shared with the members of the group, as compared to hedonic products (Chen, Thomas, and Kohli 2016). Hedonic products have "esthetic, experiential, and enjoyment benefits" (Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan 2008, 49) with unique, distinctive experiences for every individual and are less likely to be shared. Similarly, Steinhart et al. (2014) showed that the naïve theory of popularity drives the use of functional products, while the naïve theory of exclusivity drives the use of self-expressive products. Cultural and virtual nostalgic ads operate at a collective level, leading to a more homogenous nostalgic experience across individuals (Holak, Havlena, and Matveev 2005), more likely with utilitarian products. On the other hand, with personal and interpersonal nostalgic ads, there ought to be heterogeneous nostalgic experiences to the same stimulus because of individual differences in personality and life experiences (Holak, Havlena, and Matveev 2005), more likely with hedonic products. Hence,

P4: Personal nostalgic appeals would lead to stronger (weaker) behavioral loyalty toward personal hedonic (vs. personal utilitarian) products.

P5: Collective nostalgic appeals would lead to stronger (weaker) behavioral loyalty toward shared utilitarian (vs. shared hedonic) products.

Nostalgic Appeals and Social Relationships

Nostalgia is an ambivalent emotion, a mix of (predominantly) positive and negative emotions (Merchant et al. 2013). Research has identified factors like past-present contrast (Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran 2019) that reduce (enhance) the negative (positive) component of nostalgia. Interactivity (using digital media) may be another variable that could achieve the same objective. According to Liu and Shrum (2002), interactivity involves two-way communication and active control and, therefore, it enhances cognitive involvement and perceived control among users. Digital media offers ample avenues for expressing nostalgia through various platforms, objects, media content, and styles (Niemeyer 2014). For instance, Snapchat's "Flashback Stories," Facebook's "On This Day," and Google Photos' "Memories" allow us to reminisce about a time in the past. Social media further provide a sense of popular culture and define stimuli (e.g., music) that can evoke collective nostalgia (Jacobsen 2020). One of Netflix's most popular original series, *Stranger Things,* uses cues or references (e.g., music, cinema) from the 1980s to evoke nostalgia. To complement it, a text-creator page was launched that enables fans to convert any text to *Stranger Things*' unique font and design and share it on social media. Such interactive tools boost consumer engagement with the product or service. In advertising, Subaru's "First Car Story" campaign (Aarra 2013) to promote its Impreza line of cars is highly interactive. Such interactive ads leave more control and choice in the hands of consumers and make them active message creators, not just receivers (Liu and Shrum 2002).

Similarly, sensorially engaging products (through visual, auditory, haptic, olfactory, and gustatory aspects) facilitate mental simulation of product interaction (Krishna, Cian, and Aydı noğlu 2017). Haptic imagery (merely touching the product on the screen) may enhance the perception of ownership and lead to the endowment effect (Peck and Shu 2009). For example, Coca-Cola launched a multichannel drinkable advertising campaign (Coca-Cola 2015) for Coke Zero. The ad interacted with consumers using the mobile app Shazam. It showed the beverage being poured directly from their TVs into a glass on their mobile devices. After every full glass, the app rewarded the interaction with a mobile coupon redeemable for a free Coke Zero at stores. Thus, perceived interactivity in ads (McMillan and Hwang 2002) would reduce ambivalence, leading to more favorable marketing consequences. Hence,

P6: High (vs. low) perceived interactivity in ads would lead to a stronger (vs. weaker) attitude toward the nostalgic ad, nostalgic brand, and purchase considerations.

Nostalgic Appeals and Culture

Delassus, Grappi, and Zarantonello (2018) showed that personal nostalgia (Stern 1992) works better in individualistic cultures (Hofstede 1983) (such as the United States) while collective nostalgia (Baker and Kennedy 1994) works better in collectivistic cultures (such as India; Hofstede 1983). Similarly, types of nostalgia of a direct nature, such as personal nostalgia (Stern 1992), and an indirect nature, such as vicarious or historical nostalgia (Stern 1992), and interpersonal and virtual nostalgia (Holak and Havlena 1998) could be related to low-context and high-context cultures (Hall 1976). Direct nostalgia is based on directly or personally experienced past events. In contrast, indirect nostalgia is based on past events not experienced directly but represented through people, books, or media (Stern 1992).

Advertisements in low-context (high-context) cultures communicate in a concrete and direct (abstract and indirect) style (Cho et al. 1999). According to Lin (1993), the communication objective in low-context cultures is to connect thoughts and actions to people and their environment (as occurs in direct nostalgia), while for high-context cultures, the aim is to attain consensus and harmony in interpersonal relationships and social circumstances (as occurs in indirect nostalgia). Hence,

P7: The effectiveness of indirect (vs. direct) nostalgic appeals is higher for high-context (vs. low-context) cultures.

Nostalgia could also be related to Hofstede's (1983) culture dimensions—short-term versus long-term orientation and indulgence versus restraint. Long-term versus short-term orientation is related to the focus of people's work—the future versus the present or past. (Hofstede and Milosevic 2018). Long-term-oriented cultures promote virtues oriented toward a future reward, while short-term-oriented cultures promote virtues related to the past and the present. Long-term-oriented cultures value a holistic view of time, cherishing both the past and the future. They appreciate planning, frugality, delayed need gratification, hard work for future benefit, adapting traditional values to a modern context, ethical behavior, perseverance, and are resistant to new ideas and sudden changes (Bearden, Money, and Nevins 2006). On the other hand, short-term-oriented cultures value materialism, overspending, adoption of new products that enhance their status in society, social obligations, immediate need gratification, self-enhancement, and self-consistency (Hofstede and Milosevic 2018). Future-oriented nostalgia is driven by anticipation, goal orientation, and futuristic aspirations (Jacobsen 2020). Therefore, it is more likely to be experienced in long-term-oriented cultures (compared to short-term-oriented cultures). Past-oriented nostalgia dwells in the real and imagined past, and present-oriented nostalgia is a reaction emerging from dissatisfaction with the present. Therefore, both types of nostalgia align with the values of short-term culture, focusing on social obligations and self-enhancement. Hence,

P8: Future-oriented (vs. present- and past-oriented) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for long-term (vs. short-term) oriented cultures.

Indulgent versus restraint culture is associated with the gratification versus control of natural human desires to enjoy life (Hofstede and Milosevic 2018). Indulgent culture allows more effortless gratification of natural human desires for living a fun-filled life, gives higher importance to leisure, and develops a perception of control over personal life, and people are more likely to remember positive emotions. On the other hand, restraint culture imposes greater control on the gratification of needs through strict social norms, gives lower importance to leisure, and develops a perception of helplessness, and people are less likely to remember positive emotions (Hofstede and Milosevic 2018). In restraint cultures, the focus would be more on cultural memories (Baker and Kennedy 1994) that are shared with the members of the society and fall within the social norms. Indulgence and gratification through fond personal memories (Stern 1992) are not encouraged in restraint cultures (unlike indulgent cultures). Hence,

P9: Personal (vs. cultural) nostalgic appeals would be more effective for indulgent (vs. restraint) cultures.

Contributions and Future Directions

While a considerable number of ads (12%) use nostalgic appeals (Srivastava, Maheswarappa, and Sivakumaran 2017), the work on nostalgia in advertising is not commensurate with this. This article does a systematic review of the literature on nostalgia by going through 205 articles. This work uses an interrogative approach (Lim 2020) to answer three key questions: What do we know about nostalgia? What

do we need to know about nostalgia? and Where should we be heading? This article makes significant contributions and advances the field in several ways. First, the article critically examines the course of progression of the conceptualization and operationalization of nostalgia. Authors analyze past definitions and develop a new one. Second, we extend the typology framework of nostalgia (Havlena and Holak 1996) by mapping different types of nostalgia into existing dimensions. In addition, we propose two new dimensions—time and deliberation—to embrace and classify other types of nostalgia, such as past-oriented, present-oriented, and future-oriented nostalgia. This will be of help to future researchers to conceptualize nostalgic appeals in multiple dimensions. Third, this work consolidates and classifies the extant literature on nostalgia (in general) and nostalgic advertising (in particular) and offers an organizing framework. This article gives a classification of nostalgia's antecedents, moderators, and consequences. Fourth, we analyze and identify gaps in extant research on nostalgic advertising (e.g., gender identity, types of nostalgic appeals, and culture). Finally, we delineate propositions linking nostalgic appeals with the following: emotional flow in ads, gender identities, product type and consumption situations, interactivity in ads, and types of cultures. Though our review predominantly revolves around nostalgic advertising, we also explore issues that affect the marketing of products and services (e.g., culture and digitalization).

While review articles, in general, may not have managerial implications, we provide some implications for practitioners. Our propositions are grounded in theory and point the way forward for advertisers. For instance, consider P7, that is, indirect (vs. direct) nostalgic appeals would be more effective in high-context (vs. low-context) cultures. If a company that operates in many countries (e.g., Nestle, Coca-Cola) wants to use nostalgic advertising appeals in different cultures, it may test P7 using market research. The firm may test if indirect (direct) nostalgic appeals work better in high (low) context cultures.

While there are existing review articles on nostalgia (e.g., Christou 2020; Gineikienė 2013), this article extends these by having a larger data set, being more comprehensive and broad-based, extending the typology framework, identifying missed opportunities, and delineating propositions that lay out a research roadmap for nostalgic advertising.

This review has certain limitations. First, this is a comprehensive review but may not be exhaustive since we ensure the quality of literature by including articles from Web of Science–indexed journals with an annual impact factor of at least 1.0. There is a possibility that we may have excluded some relevant studies in the process of screening and fulfilling the eligibility criteria for our systematic review. Second, we could not focus on research themes such as different contexts in which nostalgia is studied, different geographical areas explored, and methods used in nostalgia research. In conclusion, this systematic review is comprehensive, spotlights nostalgic advertising, and aims to further research in this area.

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